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AUTHOR Crews, Kimberly A.; Concellier, Patricia
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ABSTRACT

This student chartbook on the demography of the United States uses text and corresponding maps and charts to teach demographic concepts and terminology. The first reading, "Population Change in the U.S." explains natural increase, net migration, and growth or decrease of population for 1980-1986. The second reading, "U.S. Population by Age and Sex" discusses population pyramids, the baby boom, and aging. The "U.S. Household Composition" is the third reading, and it covers household and family size, 1950-1985. The fourth reading, "U.S. Racial and Ethnic Composition" discusses factors affecting composition, trends and projections, and regional trends. "The Wage Gap" is the fifth reading, and it compares educational attainments and occupations of white males, white females, black males, and black females. The sixth and final reading is "Migration in the United States," and it discusses historical migration trends, recent trends, characteristics of migrants, and the effects of migration. A 24-word glossary is included. Information on Population Reference Bureau, Inc. membership and other educational materials produced by them is provided. (DJC)

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U.S. Population: Charting the Change

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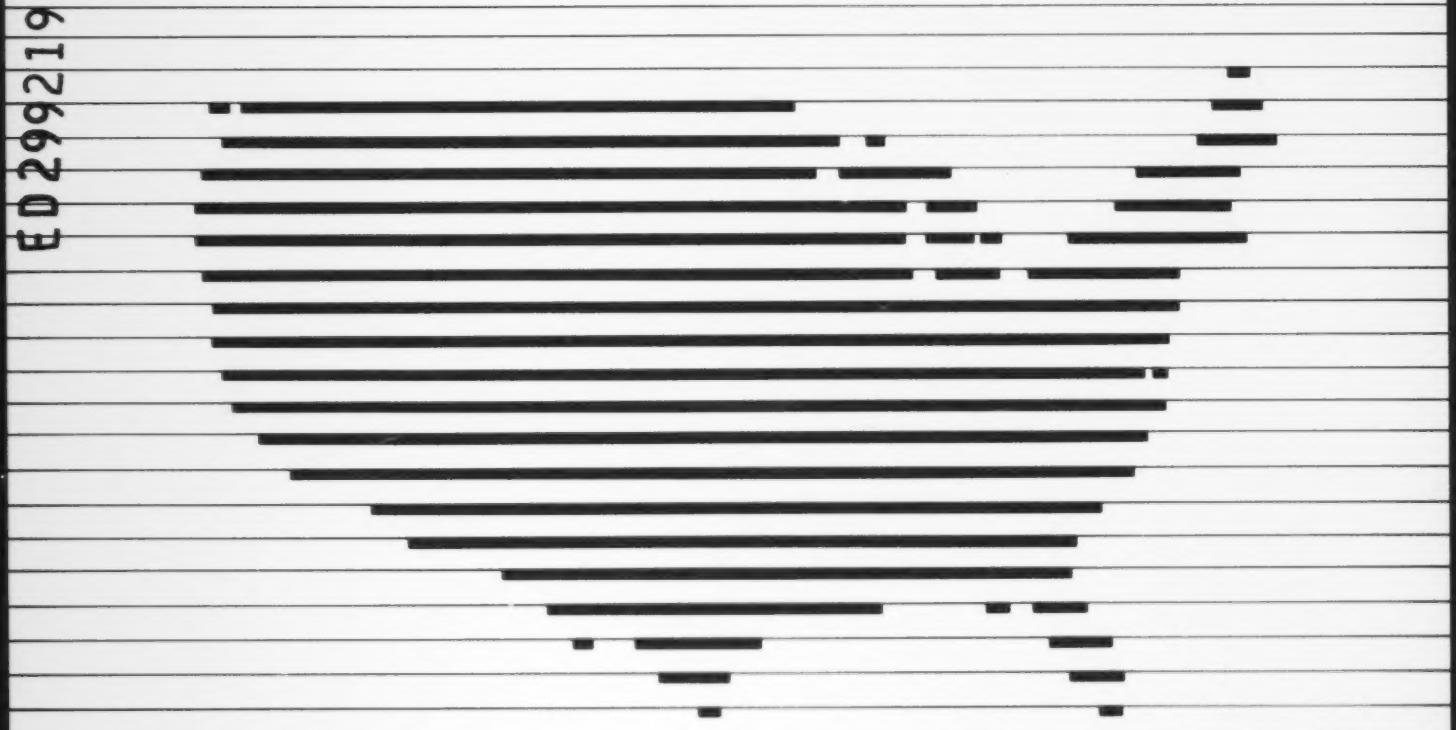

A Population Learning Series

Student Chartbook

Population Gain or Loss in the United States
Age and Sex Composition of the U.S. Population
Composition of U.S. Households
U.S. Racial and Ethnic Composition
The Wage Gap
Net Migration in the United States

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U.S. Population: Charting the Change was written by Kimberly A. Crews and Patricia Cancellier. Special thanks to PRB staff for editorial assistance.

Table of Contents

- Population Gain or Loss in the United States, 1980-1986 (Map and Reading)
- Age and Sex Composition of the U.S. Population (Chart and Reading)
- Composition of U.S. Households, 1960 and 1985 (Chart and Reading)
- U.S. Racial and Ethnic Composition, 1950-2020 (Chart and Reading)
- The Wage Gap, 1985 (Chart and Reading)
- Net Migration in the United States, 1980-1986 (Map and Reading)
- Glossary of Population Terms

Production Assistant: Tracey A. Smith
Graphics: Joanna Lawrence

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May 1988

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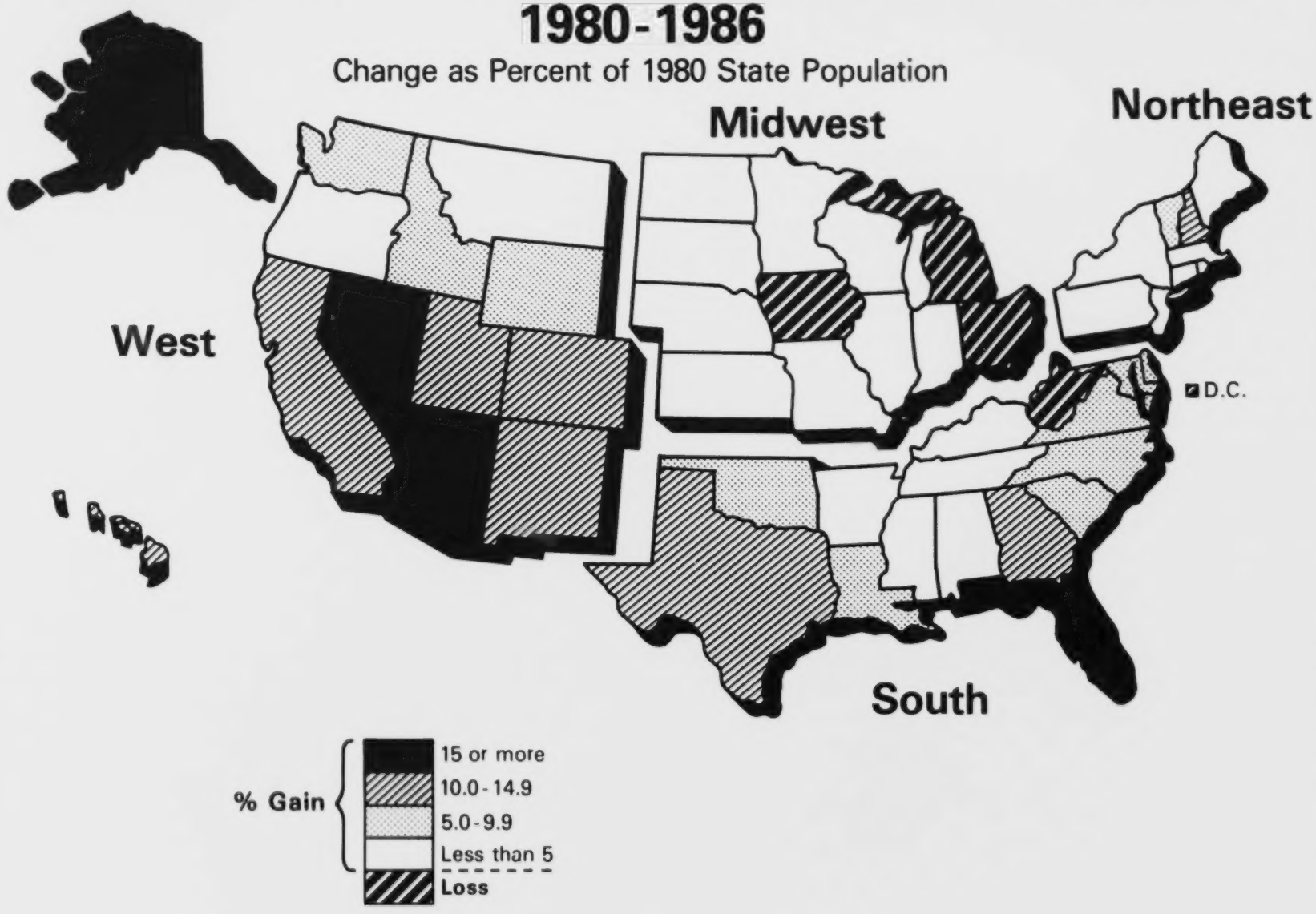
Population Gain or Loss in the United States
1980-1986

Change as Percent of 1980 State Population



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census

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"The Balancing Equation" Components of Population Change

(Births − Deaths / Natural Increase) + (Immigrants − Emigrants / Net Migration) = Growth (or Decrease)

Population Change in the U.S.

1. According to the map, "Population Gain or Loss in the U.S.," which states have had the greatest gains and losses during the 1980s?

2. What are the three components of population change?

The population of the United States on January 1, 1987 was estimated to be 243 million, an increase of about 16 million since the last Census taken on April 1, 1980. This growth resulted from the interaction of three demographic factors: births, deaths, and migration. These factors make up the **"balancing equation"** (see the formula illustrated above). The difference between births and deaths in a population is the natural increase (or decrease) of that population. Net migration is the difference between the number of persons entering and leaving a geographic area.

Natural increase has traditionally contributed a larger share to this country's population increase than net migration. However, at progressively smaller geographic levels (e.g., region, state, or county) net migration's importance can easily begin to dominate. This has been the case in the southern and western states during the 1980s. Recently, the South and Southwest have been attracting large numbers of migrants. These regions have absorbed over 90 percent of the total U.S. population gain between 1980 and 1986. Over half of that increase was due to inmigration from other states and immigration from other countries.

As the map, "Population Gain or Loss in the United States," shows, the Northeast and Midwest grew more slowly than the nation as a whole. In the Northeast, New Hampshire was the only state that grew faster than the U.S. rate of 6.4 percent. Growth has been even slower in the Midwest. Three of the four states that lost population in the U.S. between 1980 and 1986 are in the Midwest: Iowa, Michigan, and Ohio. The fourth was West Virginia.

Births

Births are one component of population change. There has been an increase in the number of births in the United States since the late 1970s. This upswing follows a decline in births that occurred after the baby boom ended in the mid-1960s.

The slight upturn in births during the late 1970s and 1980s does not come close to the high fertility of the 1950s. In 1957, the peak of the baby boom, there were 4,332,000 births. The total for 1987 was 3,829,000. Recent increases can be attributed to the large number of women of childbearing age (women born during the baby boom), rather than increases in the number of children women are bearing, which was the case during the baby boom. Today, smaller families are the norm. Since 1977, American women have had an average of 1.8 children, almost 2 children less than the 3.7 child average at the height of the baby boom.

Deaths

The second factor in population change is mortality. The number of deaths in the U.S. has increased slightly each year since 1982. However, the increase is not as great as might be expected for a population which is aging and thus has a larger and larger proportion of its population in the elderly age groups. This improvement in mortality is reflected in the decline in the crude death rate from 9.4 to 8.7 deaths per 1,000 persons between 1971 and 1986.

The declining mortality rate is linked with increased life expectancy. Someone born in 1985 could expect to live 74.7 years, up from 71.2 years in 1972. Life expectancy for males is lower than for females, 71.2 years versus 78.2 years in 1985.

Migration

The third component of population change is migration. Unlike most other countries, net immigration (more immigrants than emigrants) accounts for a large share of U.S. population growth. Historically, it has accounted for a significant portion of annual population growth, except during the Great Depression in the 1930s. The period from 1980 to 1986 was no exception. In fact, the greatest number of immigrants since the early 1900s arrived in the U.S. in 1980, partly as a result of the arrival of Cuban and Haitian refugees.

Net immigration in 1986 was about 625,000, down from the 1985 total of 648,000 and from the 1980 total of 845,000. In 1986, net immigration accounted for 28 percent of the population growth in the United States; in 1970 net immigration accounted for only 17 percent of growth.

Migration within the United States (in contrast to immigration from abroad) is an important factor in the growth or loss of state populations. States that lost population between 1980 and 1986 (see map, "Population Gain or Loss in the United States") did not lose population through natural decrease – more deaths than births – but through net outmigration.

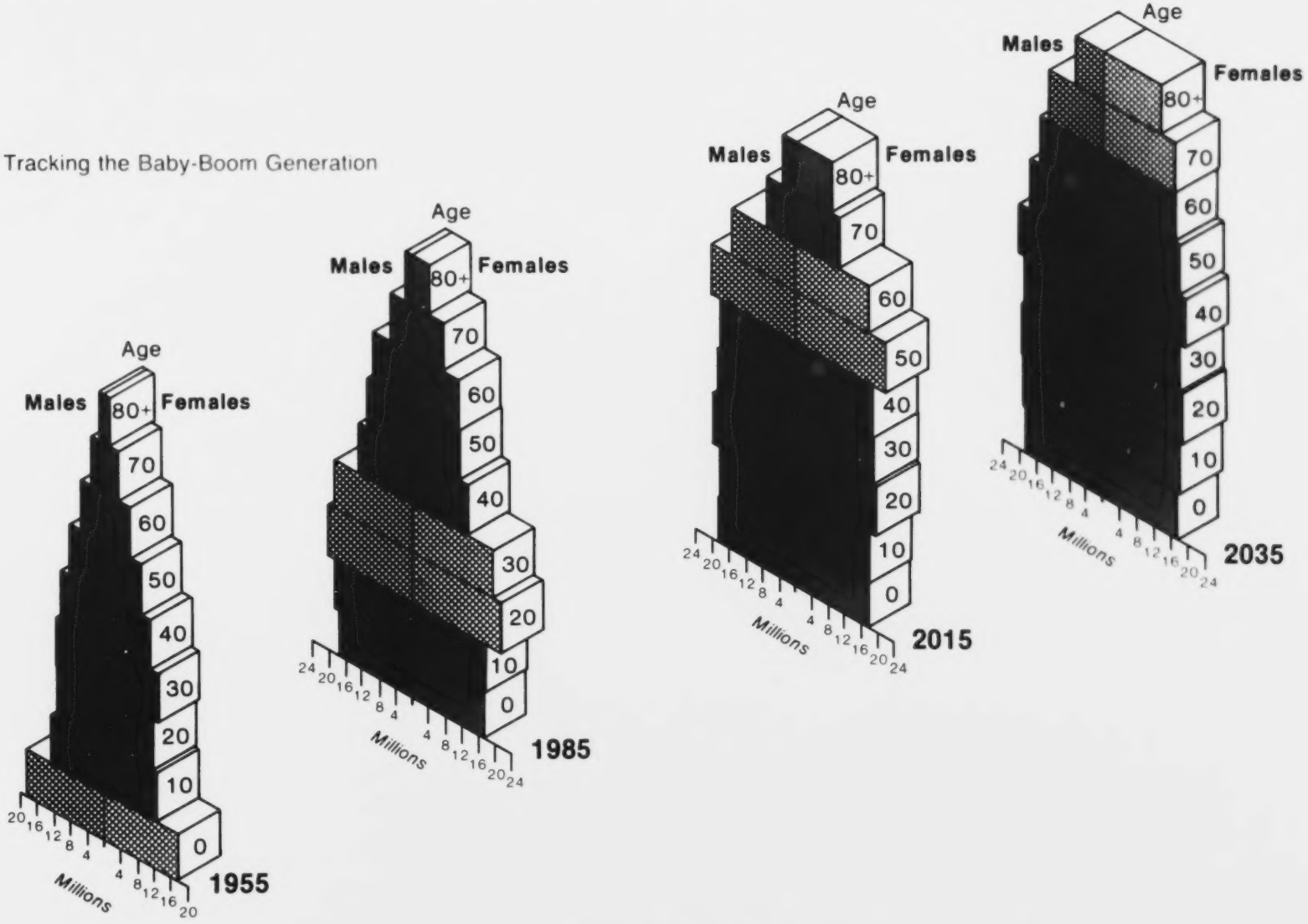
Some Examples

Iowa is an example of a state which experienced population loss due to net outmigration between 1980 and 1986. Iowa's population declined by 63,000 during that time. Natural increase boosted Iowa's population by 103,000; however, 166,000 people left the state during those years.

Utah, on the other hand, is a state in which natural increase is the dominant force behind its growth. Having the highest fertility rate in the nation, Utah's births (248,000) exceeded its deaths (54,000) by 194,000. It gained about 10,000 people through net migration, but they contributed to only 5 percent of the state's growth.

Age and Sex Composition of the U.S. Population

Tracking the Baby-Boom Generation



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census

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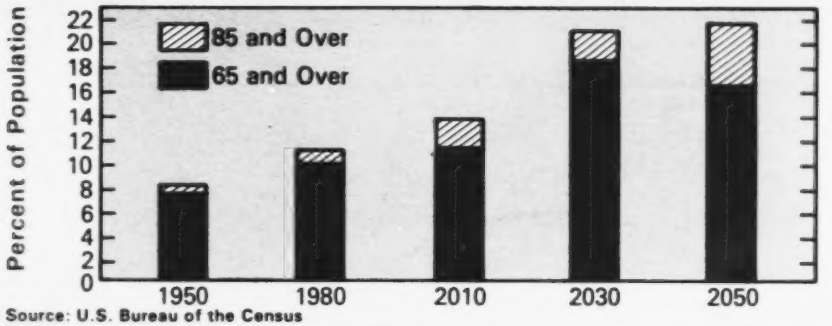
The Elderly Population in the U.S. by Age, 1950-2050



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census

U.S. Population By Age and Sex

1. What do the pyramids in the "Age and Sex Composition of the U.S. Population" chart depict?
2. How has the baby boom affected America's population?
3. How will the aging of the U.S. population affect Americans?

Apart from total size, the most important demographic characteristic of a population is its age-sex structure, or the proportion of people at each age, by sex. Information on a population's age structure is basic to determining both the needs of its people and the potential for future growth of the total population as well as specific age groups. For these reasons, age structure has significant government policy and economic implications. A population with a large proportion of young people will have very different needs than a population with a larger proportion of older people. As people age, their needs change – from child care and schools to jobs, housing, and medical care.

Population Pyramids

The age-sex structure of a country can be studied through the use of population pyramids. The vertical axis indicates the different age groups (shown here are 10-year age groups, except for ages 80 and over). The horizontal bars show either the number or percent of people in each age group by sex. Pyramid shapes are determined by fertility, mortality, and migration patterns. These patterns are illustrated on the chart labeled, "Age and Sex Composition of the U.S. Population."

The pyramid for 1955 depicts the arrival of the "baby boom" generation, which was then less than 10 years old. Low birth rates of the Depression years are reflected by the smaller number of people in the 10-19 and 20-29 year age groups. The bars representing older generations reflect a population which grew through natural increase (a surplus of births over deaths) and high immigration. This led to ever larger cohorts until the 1930s. Declining fertility and much reduced immigration produced the subsequent smaller cohorts. The start of the baby boom shows renewed population growth.

The pyramid for 1985 shows an aging population. Since the baby boom of the 1950s and early 1960s, there has been a sharp decline in the nation's birth rate. Despite this decline, the population grew slightly at an annual rate of 0.7 percent. Legal immigration of 570,000 in 1985 added to the increase in growth.

The pyramids projecting the future population show continued low fertility, the maturing of the baby boomers, and aging of the entire U.S. population.

The Baby Boom

The baby boom was a period of rapidly rising fertility initially attributed to the return of soldiers after World War II. However, this "temporary" phenomenon lasted from 1946 into the early 1960s and was eventually associated with many factors including: economic prosperity, larger family-size norms, an increasing marriage rate, and the large number of 1920s' babies reaching their childbearing years.

The baby-boom generation is an excellent example of the impact a changed age structure can have on a society. As the baby boomers pass through the life cycle, American society has been reacting to problems resulting from an unusually large cohort. Their presence required a significant expansion of our educational system, first at the elementary and later, at secondary and college levels. In the 1970s and 1980s, as baby boomers matured, the demand for jobs and housing increased. As the baby boomers begin to retire, around 2010, the United States will have to support a large population of elderly people.

The slowdown in fertility following the baby-boom years has also caused problems in the United States. In the 1970s many schools closed as enrollment dropped. Today, employers are having a difficult time filling some entry-level jobs as the labor pool of young people shrinks. In the 2010s and 2020s, a smaller labor force will be supporting a rapidly growing elderly population.

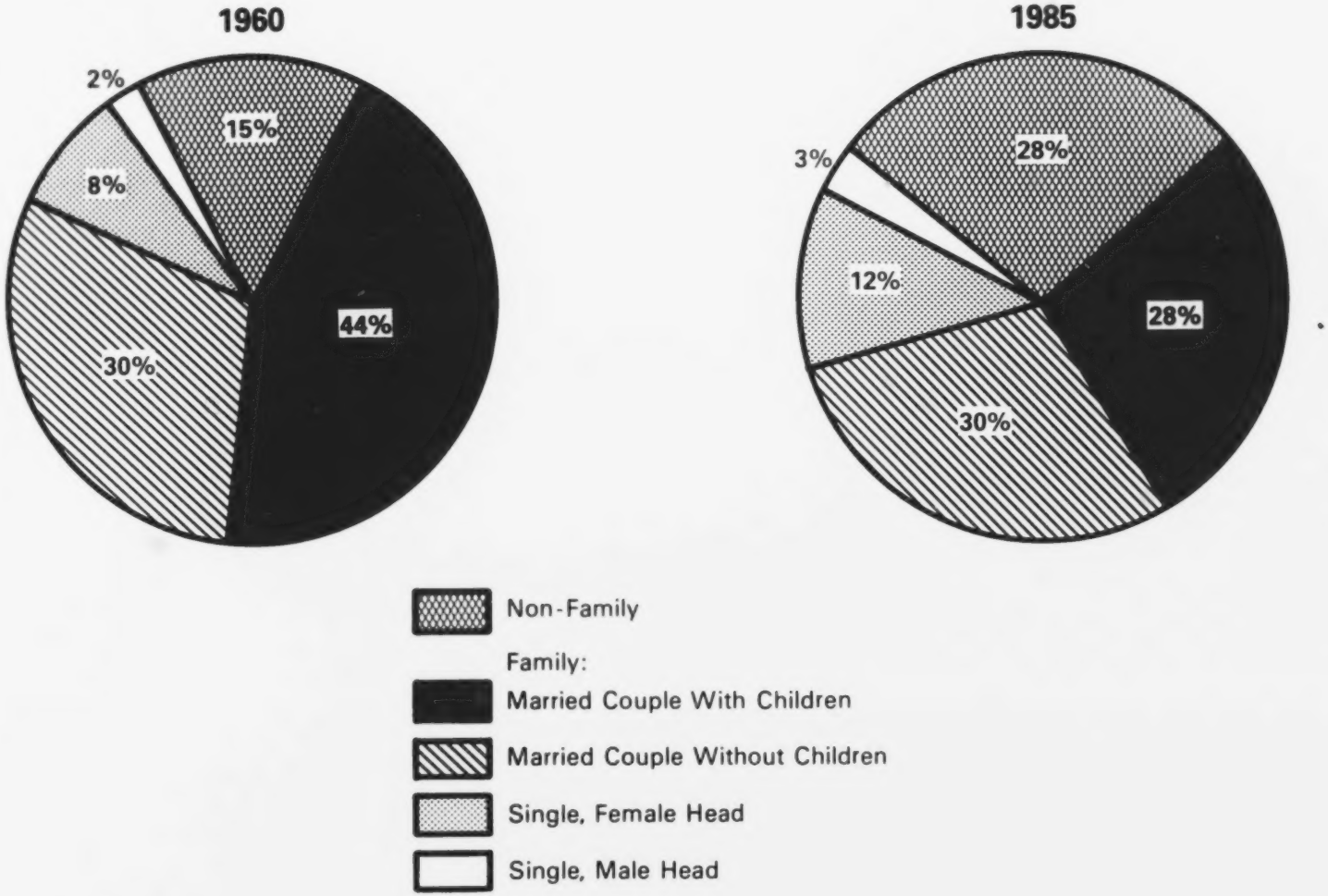
An Aging U.S.

The United States will continue to age. In 1820 the median age of the U.S. population was 16.7 years. This means that half of the population was younger than 16.7 while the other half was older. The median age climbed to 22.9 by 1900 and reached 30.2 in 1950. The median age fell to 29.5 in 1960 and 28 in 1970 as the weight of the baby boom created a more youthful population. By 1980 the median age again reached 30 years. This increase is expected to continue and current projections show the median age reaching 36.3 in 2000 and 41.6 years by 2040.

The charts above show how the baby-boom cohorts will change the size of the elderly population by 2030 when all its members will be over age 65. The proportion of population over age 65 will increase from the 1985 level of 12 percent to about 21 percent in 2030.

Because life expectancy is improving, the number of people older than age 85 is also increasing. Between now and 2010 the absolute and relative number of persons over age 85 is expected to increase. The proportion of the population aged 65 and over will remain virtually unchanged between 2030 and 2050; however, the proportion over age 85 – the remaining baby boomers – within that group is projected to more than double and will make up one-quarter of the elderly population.

Composition of U.S. Households, 1960* and 1985*



*Numbers may not sum to 100.0 percent due to rounding.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census

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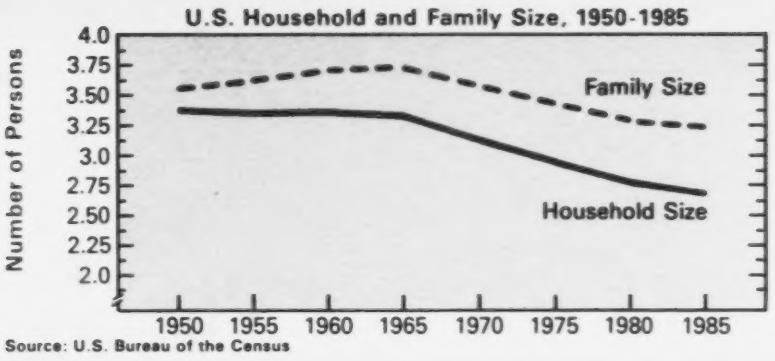


Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census

U.S. Household Composition

1. Why are there more households than families?

2. Based on the chart, "Composition of U.S. Households, 1960 and 1985," describe the changes in household composition during that period.

3. Do you think today's households are larger or smaller than they were in the 1950s?

Between 1950 and 1985 the number of households in the United States doubled from about 43 to 86 million. The two basic types of households in the U.S. are family households and non-family households. Non-family households consist of people living alone or unrelated individuals living together. The increase in the number of households was caused by increases in population and the growth of single-person and non-family households. The graph on this page illustrates the decline in family size and household size since 1950. These changes reflect a continuation of a historical downward trend in both family size and household size.

The major reason for the decline in household size is the drop in the average number of persons under age 18. As the United States became more industrialized and urbanized in the early 20th century, the home was transformed from being a center of production and economic support to being a place to live completely separate from work. When it became less advantageous to have a large number of people working in and around the household, couples began limiting family size. Household size continues to decline as a result of other lifestyle changes. Unmarried adults and widowed grandparents are more likely to live alone, rather than in the family home as was the norm in the past.

The pie charts labeled, "Composition of U.S. Households," show the changes in household structure between 1960 and 1985. The stereotype of the U.S. household is that of the "traditional family" – a working husband, housewife, and several children. However, households are made up of a variety of groups, some family and some non-family. The charts indicate a shift in household composition toward a non-traditional or non-family composition during the past 25 years.

Family Households

Most people in the U.S. still reside in some type of family household. The Census Bureau definition of a family includes married couples with and without children, single-parent households with children, and other groupings of people related by marriage, birth, or adoption. In 1985, 72 percent of people resided in family households, down from the 85 percent who lived in family households in 1960.

Not only are family households a smaller portion of U.S. households, but the composition of family households is different now than it was 25 years ago. Married couples with children made up 44 percent of U.S. households in 1960, and married couples without children accounted for an additional 30 percent. By 1985 the share of households composed of married couples with children was down to 28 percent. The proportion of single, female-headed households rose; the proportion of single, male-headed households rose slightly; and the relative size of households composed of married couples without children did not change.

High levels of divorce have led to the increase of single-parent households. These households are more likely to be headed by women than men. In the past 15 years, families headed by single men have become more prevalent, but still make up only a small portion of U.S. households.

Non-family Households

The increase in non-family households between 1960 and 1985 is due to the increased number of people living alone or with roommates. The number of non-family households grew rapidly during the 1970s as baby boomers reached adulthood. Unlike previous generations, many young adults delayed marriage or remained single, but did form their own households. High divorce rates also contributed to the increase in single-person households.

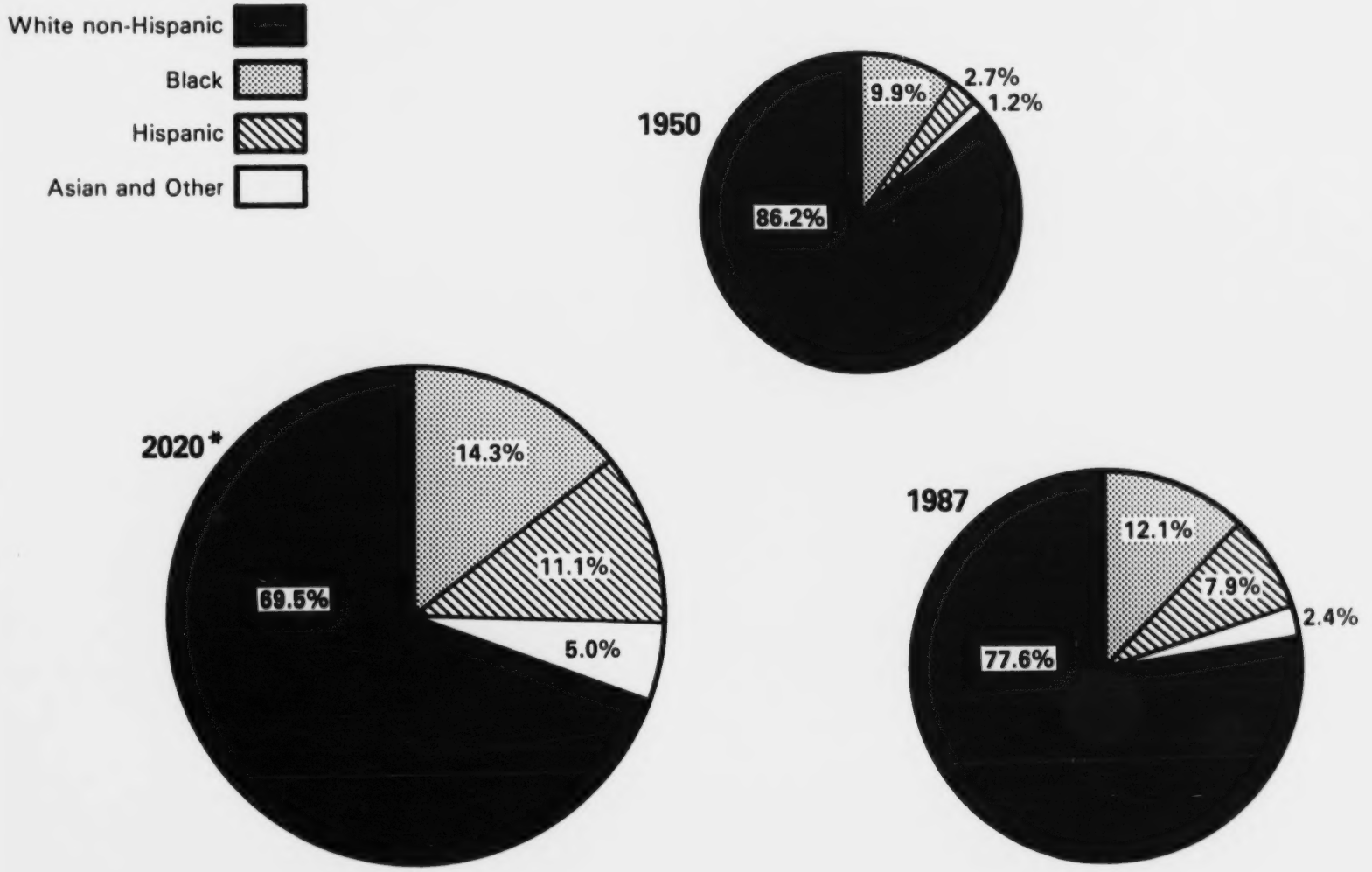
According to the Bureau of the Census, the increase in number of persons living alone has been one of the major changes in household demographics. Women are more likely to live alone than men. This is largely explained by the fact that female life expectancy is greater than male, and widows are more likely to maintain their own households after their husbands' deaths now than ever before.

Recent Trends

Recent projections compiled by the Census Bureau indicate that household size will continue to decline, but not as much as in the past 25 years. Changes in household size may occur if the availability of affordable housing diminishes and people living alone move in with families or roommates. However, as long there is a preference for small families, there is not likely to be a significant increase in household size.

The growth of single-parent households has been an important change in recent years. The proportion of single-parent households among family groups with children rose from about 7 percent in 1950 to 26 percent in 1985. Black families are more likely to be headed by a single parent than white families. One-parent families can be created by premarital births, separation, divorce, or the death of a spouse. Recent increases in single-parent households can be largely attributed to the increase of single mothers who have never married and to the high rate of divorce.

U.S. Racial and Ethnic Composition, 1950 - 2020



*Numbers may not sum to 100.0 percent due to rounding.

Source: Population Reference Bureau and U.S. Bureau of the Census

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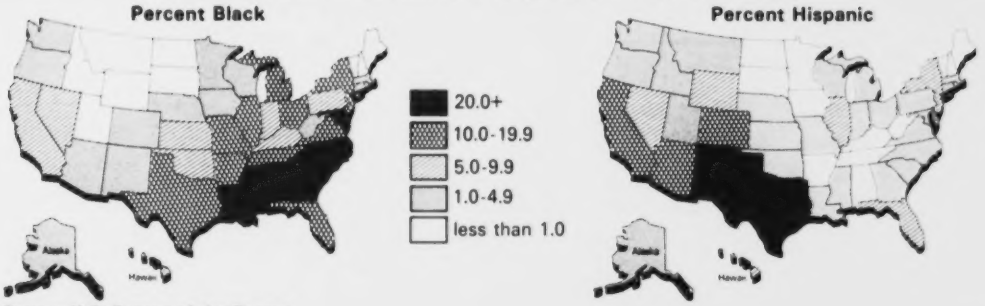
Distribution of Blacks and Hispanics in the U.S., 1980



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census

U.S. Racial and Ethnic Composition

1. Examine the chart labeled, "U.S. Racial and Ethnic Composition, 1950 to 2020." How has the racial and ethnic composition of the U.S. changed since 1950? How is it projected to change by 2020?

2. What factors affect population composition?

3. What are the regional variations in population composition and immigrant settlement?

The racial and ethnic composition of the United States has changed drastically since it was dominated by Native Americans prior to European settlement in the 16th century.* By 1800, the majority of U.S. inhabitants were whites, originating from northern and western Europe; nearly 20 percent of the country was black. In 1900, the U.S. became even more ethnically heterogeneous as the proportion of white immigrants from southern and eastern Europe increased. The proportion of people with northern and western European backgrounds declined and the relative size of the black population dropped to 10 percent. Today, high levels of immigration into the U.S. continue to alter its racial and ethnic composition. The immigrants are diverse, stemming largely from Latin America, the Caribbean, and Asia. They have and will continue to have a great impact on the racial and ethnic composition of the United States.

Factors Affecting Composition

Several factors contribute to the changing racial and ethnic composition of the U.S. population. Of course the current racial and ethnic makeup of the population affects its future composition. Age structure and levels of fertility and mortality of the different racial and ethnic groups will determine their future size relative to other groups. For example, a group with a young population – a large proportion of its population in the younger ages – is likely to have a higher rate of natural increase (the growth that stems from an excess of births over deaths). An older population tends to have a lower rate of natural increase.

Immigration also affects the racial and ethnic composition of the population. Currently, the U.S. limits immigration to approximately 450,000 persons annually. Additionally, a variable number of persons enter under a special refugee status. Many people also enter the country illegally each year. If current levels of immigration continue, the Asian and Other group would have the largest proportion of immigrants (37 percent), followed by Hispanics (32 percent), white non-Hispanics (20 percent), and blacks (11 percent).

Trends and Projections

The pie charts, "U.S. Racial and Ethnic Composition," show the population makeup for the years 1950, 1987, and projected to 2020. The charts show the declining dominance of white non-Hispanics from 86.2 to 77.6 percent of the population between 1950 and 1987. White non-Hispanics, have declined because their share of U.S. immigrants has been shrinking and because their fertility is lower than other racial and ethnic groups. The proportion of blacks in the population declined between 1800 and 1950, but has been rising since then due to high fertility and a youthful age structure. Since World War II, increased immigration of Hispanics, along with their continued high fertility, has contributed to their rapid growth. The surge of Asian immigrants since the 1960s has made them the fastest growing minority.

A population projection is an estimate of future population based on a set of assumptions about future demographic behavior. The pie chart representing the year 2020 projects continued decline in the proportion of white non-Hispanics in the population, while the relative size of other groups increases. This is based on the assumptions that white non-Hispanic fertility will remain low; fertility among blacks and Hispanics will be somewhat higher than that of whites; and immigration will continue to be dominated by Hispanics and Asians. The Hispanic population is expected to increase more rapidly than the black population due to the large number of Hispanic immigrants expected. If these assumptions hold true, eventually (perhaps in the late 21st century) the Hispanic population will become the largest minority group.

Regional Trends

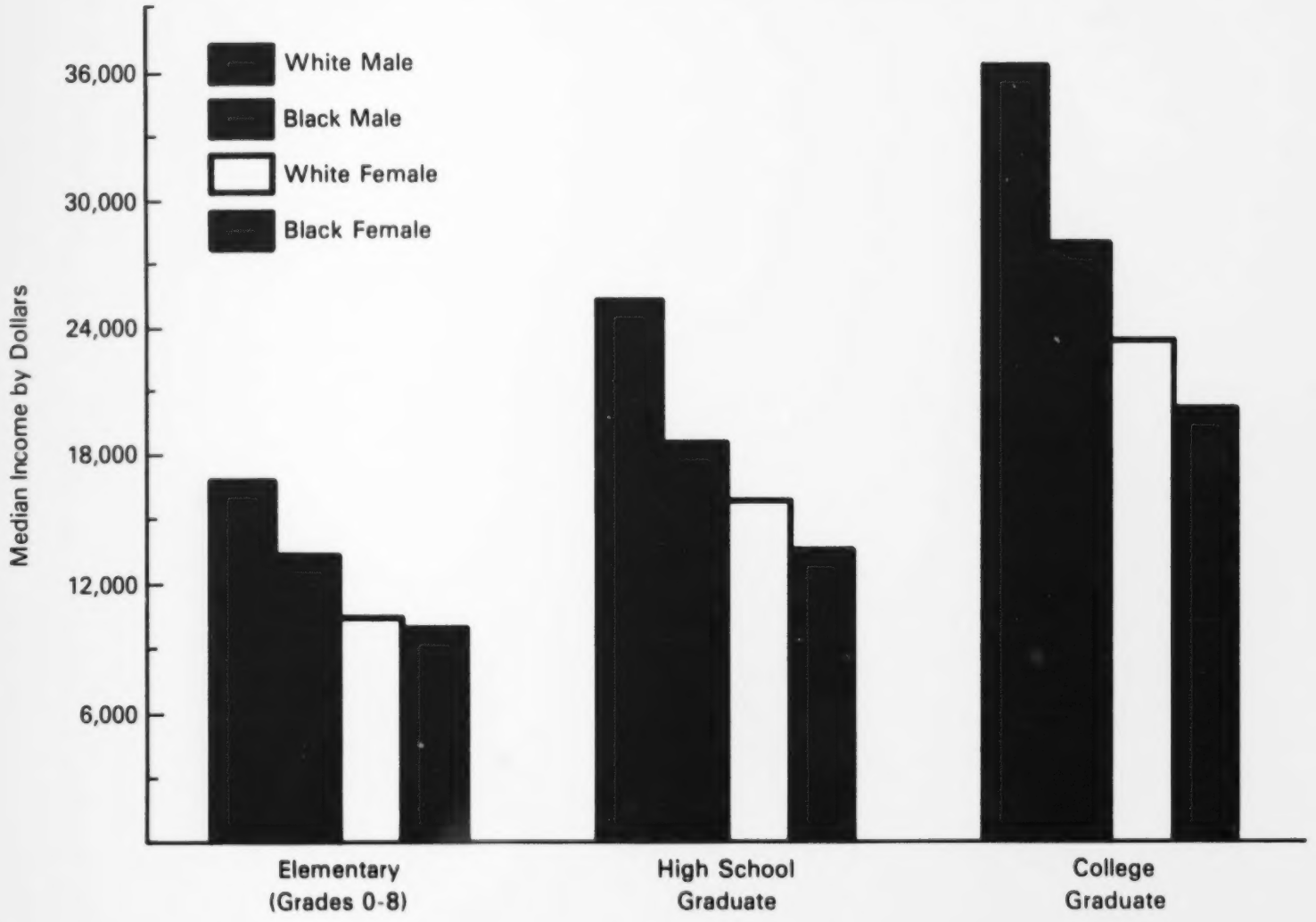
As the maps on this page show, Hispanics and blacks are concentrated in particular regions and states. There are large concentrations of blacks in the South, the Midwest, and the North. The largest concentrations of Hispanics can be found in the southwestern states.

However, immigration trends will affect the future regional population composition of the United States as recent immigrants tend to settle in one of five states: California, New York, Texas, Florida, and Illinois, in that order. Each racial/ethnic group also has its favorite destination. For example, Asians and Hispanics favor the West, while blacks and white non-Hispanics tend to favor the Northeast. If current immigration trends continue these geographic preferences could result in major racial and ethnic changes for many states. This is particularly true for California, which received more than one-quarter of all immigrants in 1984.

*U.S. statistical surveys use a mixture of racial and ethnic categories to define its population. In this essay the following four categories will be used: White non-Hispanic, Black, Hispanic, and Asian and Other. See the glossary for definitions.

The Wage Gap, 1985

(Median Income for Selected Groups of Persons 25 Years and Over)



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census

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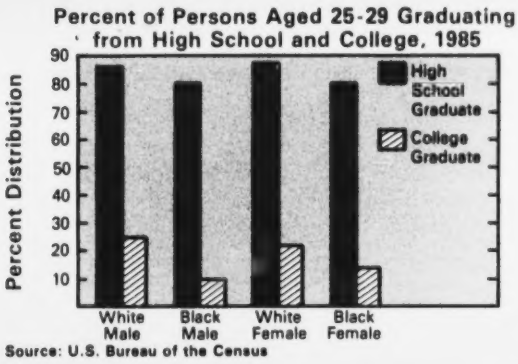


Racial and Gender Distribution of Selected Occupations, 1980

Percent in	White		Black	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Labor Force	50.0%	36.0%	4.7%	4.7%
Exec., Admin., Managers	55.0	35.6	2.5	3.4
Lawyers	83.5	12.4	1.8	0.8
Secretary, Typist	1.4	88.4	0.2	7.0
Reg. Nurses	3.4	84.6	0.4	7.1
Service	32.0	45.3	6.2	10.8

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census

The Wage Gap

1. Using "The Wage Gap" chart, describe the difference in wages between white men, black men, white women, and black women.

2. What are some reasons for the differences in wages?

3. How does occupation affect the wage gap?

Historically, the opportunities for blacks and women to obtain a good education and challenging, well-paid work have been restricted. Blacks, both men and women, have been relegated to low-status, low-paid jobs due to their relative lack of education and discrimination by others. Women were also limited in their opportunities by pressure to conform to more traditional roles as wives and mothers. However, as integration in the United States has proceeded and the roles of women have become less rigid, the opportunities for blacks and women have expanded. Blacks and women are becoming better educated and gaining the opportunity to enter higher-status and better-paying jobs.

However, as the chart labeled "The Wage Gap" shows, there still exists a differential in wages by race and gender. Men still earn higher wages than women, and whites earn more than blacks. The chart shows the median income of black and white males and black and white females for three levels of education (other education levels are not included in this representation). At similar levels of education, white men always have a higher median income than the others. White men with less education often have a higher income than women with more education. As the chart shows, the median income of women who are college graduates is lower than the median income of white men who are high school graduates.

The reasons for the gap in wages are numerous. Some of the difference can be accounted for by examining length of time on the job, amount of overtime worked, experience, and occupational distribution. For example, the median income of women is brought down because they are more likely to take jobs in lower-paying service occupations, are less represented in top management positions, and may have less experience.

While there still remains a gap in wages, that gap has been narrowing in the past 20 years. Women and black men are gaining in relative wages compared to white men. Black women have made the greatest gains, improving by 19 percent since 1965. The narrowing of the gap may be partially attributable to improvements in educational attainment, especially among blacks.

Educational Attainment

As people attain more education, one would expect their income to rise. Historically, white women have been better educated than white men since they were more likely to graduate from high school rather than to leave school and seek employment. The same is true for black men and women. In 1940, women were more educated than men, but there was about a four-year difference in the median number of school years attended between blacks and whites aged 25-29. By 1985, that gap had narrowed, with the median number of years of school completed by white males and females at 12.9 and 12.7 years for blacks.

While the median years of school completed are almost equal, the bar graph on this page shows that whites are still more likely to complete high school and college than blacks. White women were slightly less likely to graduate from college than white men, and black women were more likely to be college graduates than black men.

This discussion of education provides some reasons for the wage gap, but does not explain differences in earnings for people with similar levels of education. As noted earlier, experience and hours worked account for some of the difference. One of the main factors, however, is choice of occupation.

Occupation

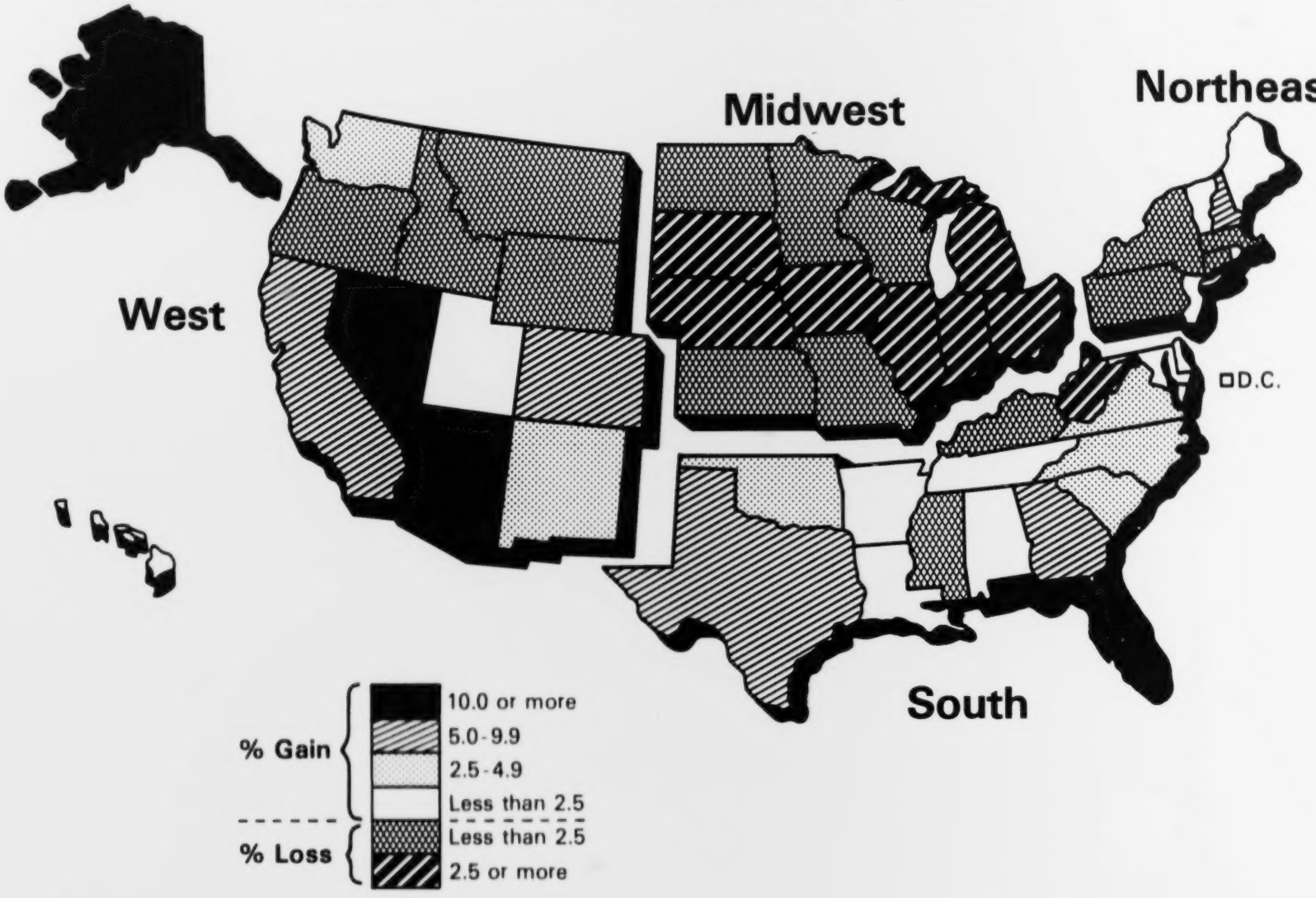
White females and blacks have made some gains into occupations formerly dominated by white males. There are many more female and black physicians and lawyers than there were 20 years ago. However, the labor market remains distinctly segregated by sex. The improvements made by blacks have not yet closed the gap between blacks and whites. The majority of women still hold traditionally "female" jobs. Both blacks and white women are underrepresented in high-prestige, high-paying jobs.

Examples of white male domination of some occupations and overrepresentation of blacks and women in others are illustrated in the table on this page. The table shows that while white males made up 50 percent of the labor force in 1980, they accounted for over 80 percent of lawyers. Women made up 91 percent of the nursing field and 95 percent of secretaries and clerks. Black females were 4.7 percent of the labor force in 1980, but accounted for 10.8 percent of service occupations.

There are also major occupational differences among people with the same level of education. For example, women with five or more years of college are most likely to be elementary teachers, managers or administrators, nurses, or secondary teachers. Men who had the same level of education were most likely to be managers or administrators, lawyers, physicians, or post-secondary teachers.

Net Migration in the United States 1980-1986

Gain or Loss as Percent of 1980 State Population



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census

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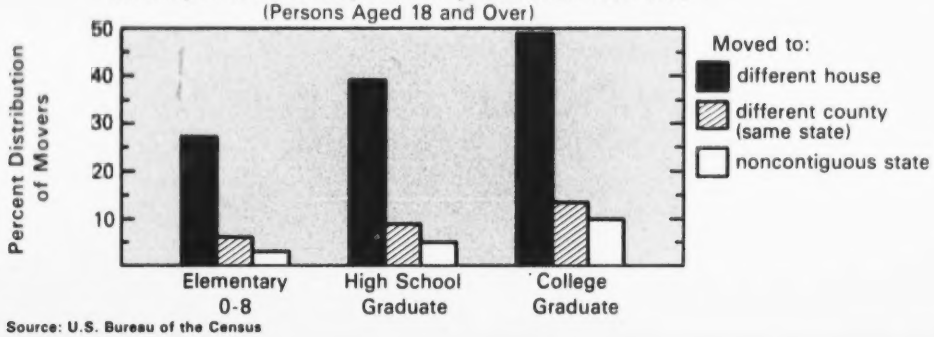
Mobility of the U.S. Population by Education 1980-1985
(Persons Aged 18 and Over)



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census

Migration in the United States

1. According to the map, "Net Migration in the United States, 1980-1986," which states grew the most through migration? Which states had the most outmigration? Which regions were the biggest gainers and losers?

2. What factors contribute to a person's decision to move?

3. Are some people more likely to move than others?

The urge to improve one's living conditions has always been a powerful force in human behavior. Humans have moved to find better sources of food, better jobs, or freedom from persecution. The United States has been a magnet for immigrants from the beginning of its history. That tradition continues today.

Except for Native Americans – who themselves migrated from Asia about 20,000 years ago – all Americans are either immigrants from abroad or the descendants of immigrants. Since the landing of the Mayflower in 1620, immigrants have made their way to this country in increasing numbers, reaching a peak between 1880 and 1930 when more than 27 million people immigrated here. Today about 500,000 immigrants are admitted legally to the U.S. each year; the number of illegal immigrants is estimated to be between 100,000 and 500,000 annually.

Arriving in the U.S. is not the end of the migration story. About one in five residents of the U.S. moves from one location to another within the country every year. These moves, along with immigration, affect population growth differently in every state and region. The map entitled "Net Migration in the United States" depicts the population gain or loss resulting from net migration for each state between 1980 and 1986. (Net migration includes gains or losses from the combination of immigration/emigration and movements within the country, termed inmigration and outmigration.)

Historical Migration Trends

The internal movement of Americans has traditionally been from east to west. Initially people moved to explore the vast continent lying inland from the eastern colonies and later to settle in the rich farmland of the Midwest. The discovery of gold in California in 1849 and the Homestead Act of 1862, which offered free land to settlers, further spurred the westward movement.

Migration from rural areas to cities has also been a strong trend in the U.S. In 1790 over 90 percent of Americans lived on farms. As industry developed in the late 1800s and farming became more mechanized, requiring fewer workers, more rural inhabitants moved to urban areas. By 1920 less than 30 percent of the population lived on farms.

The decline in the farm population has continued as agriculture has become more of a business and less a family enterprise. Today, only 2.2 percent of Americans live on farms.

Certain midwestern states whose economies are concentrated in agriculture have lost population or experienced only modest increases in recent years. Iowa, for example, has had a net migration rate of −5.7 percent in this decade – the biggest decline for any state.

New Trends

A significant trend is migration to the "Sunbelt" – the southern and western states of the U.S. Beginning in the late 1950s, and strongest in the 1970s and 1980s, a long-term trend of central and northeast migration reversed itself. The Sunbelt became, and continues to be, a major attraction for migrants. It has become home for many retirees and has been the target of industrial expansion in fields such as computers and communications, among others.

Between 1980 and 1986 the South gained 4 million people through net migration, growing by 5.3 percent. The West grew by 6.1 percent. California had the largest population increase of all states from net migration, adding 1.8 million people between 1980 and 1986.

Growth in some states in the Sunbelt slowed in the early to mid-1980s. The decline in the energy-related industries, due to the oil glut, resulted in greater outmigration and lower growth rates in Texas, Louisiana, and Utah. Wyoming, West Virginia, Montana, and Oklahoma also experienced population losses during the 1980s.

Characteristics of Migrants

Migrants share certain characteristics that distinguish them from nonmigrants. Migrants tend to be young. Migration rates are the highest for people in their twenties. They move in the process of leaving school, entering the labor force, and getting married. Migration rates are also high among young children, reflecting the mobility of their parents. Men are slightly more likely to move than women.

Education is a determinant of migration. Generally, persons with some college education are more likely to move and more likely to move long distances than those with a high school education (see the chart on this page).

Effects of Migration

Migration affects the age, sex, and social structure of both sending and receiving areas. Outmigration of the young can deprive a region of skilled workers, while large inmigration of elderly persons can put heavy demands on health care and social services. The unknown quantity of illegal immigration to the U.S. continues to make local and state planning difficult. These problems, and others, will concern American society for some time to come.

GLOSSARY OF POPULATION TERMS

Age-Sex Structure. The composition of a population as determined by the number or proportion of males and females in each age category. The age-sex structure of a population is the cumulative result of past trends in fertility, mortality, and migration. Information on age-sex composition is a prerequisite for the description and analysis of many other types of demographic data. See also "population pyramid."

Asian and Other. A category including people who did not indicate another racial category in the Census questionnaire. It is primarily made up of Japanese, Chinese, Koreans, Filipinos, Indians, Vietnamese, and other Asians and Pacific Islanders.

Baby Boom. The period following World War II from 1946-1964 marked by a dramatic increase in fertility rates and in the absolute number of births in the U.S., Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.

Birth Rate (or Crude Birth Rate). The number of births per 1,000 population in a given year.

Black. This category includes anyone with black ancestors. All immigrants from predominantly black countries in the Caribbean and Africa are assumed to be black.

Childbearing Ages. The reproductive age span of women, arbitrarily assumed for statistical purposes to be 15-44 years in the U.S.

Cohort. A group of people sharing a common temporal demographic experience who are observed through time. For example, the birth cohort of 1900 would be the people born in that year. There are also marriage cohorts, school class cohorts, etc.

Death Rate (or Crude Death Rate). The number of deaths per 1,000 population in a given year.

Emigrant. A person who moves out of one country to live in another.

Fertility. The actual reproductive performance of an individual, a couple, a group, or a population.

Hispanic. Term used by the Census Bureau referring to persons living in the U.S. who consider themselves to be of Spanish origin (i.e., those who trace their heritage to Spanish-speaking countries). It includes widely diverse ethnic groups – from totally white to mestizos to partially black people.

Immigrant. A person who enters one country from another to take up permanent residence.

Life Expectancy. The average number of additional years a person would live if current mortality trends were to continue. Most commonly cited as life expectancy at birth.

Median Age. The age which divides a population into two numerically equal groups; that is, half the people are younger than this age and half are older.

Migration. The movement of people across a specified boundary for the purpose of establishing a new permanent residence. Divided into international migration (migration between countries) and internal migration (migration within a country).

Mortality. Deaths as a component of population change.

Natural Increase (or Decrease). The surplus (deficit) of births over deaths in a population in a given time period.

Net Migration. The net effect of immigration and emigration on an area's population in a given time period, expressed as increase or decrease.

Old Population. A population with a relatively high proportion of middle-aged and aged persons, a high median age, and thus a lower growth potential.

Population Projection. Computation of future changes in population numbers, given certain assumptions about future trends in the rates of fertility, mortality, and migration. Demographers often issue low, medium, and high projections of the same population, based on different assumptions of how these rates will change in the future.

Population Pyramids. A special type of bar chart that shows the distribution of a population by age and sex. Most countries fall into one of three general types of pyramids: (1) Expansive – a broad base, indicating a high proportion of children and a rapid rate of population growth; (2) Constrictive – a base that is narrower than the middle of the pyramid, usually the result of recent rapid decline in fertility; (3) Stationary – a narrow base and roughly equal numbers in each age group, tapering off at the older ages, indicating a moderate proportion of children and a slow or zero rate of growth.

Refugee. A person forced to leave his or her country and unable to return because of persecution on account of race, religion, nationality, membership in a particular social group, or political opinion.

White non-Hispanic. All whites except those who consider themselves Hispanic. Native Americans are included in this category.

Young Population. A population with a relatively high proportion of children, adolescents, and young adults, a low median age, and thus a high growth potential.

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